DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 438 524 CS 013 889

TITLE	Beginning Reading Instruction: Components and Features of a Research-Based Reading Program. Texas Reading Initiative.
INSTITUTION	Texas Education Agency, Austin.
REPORT NO	TED-CU7-105-01
PUB DATE	1996-00-00
NOTE	28p.
AVAILABLE FROM	Texas Education Agency, P.O. Box 13817, Austin, TX 78711-3817 ($1.50). Tel: 512-463-9734; Web site: http://www.tea.state.tx.us/publications.
PUB TYPE	Guides - Non-Classroom (055)
EDRS PRICE	MF01/PC02 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS	*Beginning Reading; Classroom Techniques; Decoding (Reading); Language Acquisition; Primary Education; Reading Aloud to Others; *Reading Instruction; Reading Programs; Reading Strategies; Spelling; Vocabulary Development; Writing (Composition)
IDENTIFIERS	*Balanced Reading Instruction; State Initiatives; Texas

ABSTRACT

Meant to guide administrators and teachers as they strive to meet Governor George W. Bush's goal for all students to read on grade level by the end of grade 3, this booklet presents descriptions of components of a research-based beginning reading program. The first section describes 12 essential components of a beginning reading program. In this program, children should have opportunities to: (1) expand their use and appreciation of oral language; (2) expand their use and appreciation of printed language; (3) hear good stories and informational books read aloud daily; (4) understand and manipulate the building blocks of spoken language; (5) learn about and manipulate the building blocks of written language; (6) learn the relationship between the sounds of spoken language and the letters of written language; (7) learn decoding strategies; (8) write and relate their writing to spelling and reading; (9) practice accurate and fluent reading in decodable stories; (10) read and comprehend a wide assortment of books and other texts; (11) develop and comprehend new vocabulary through wide reading and direct vocabulary instruction; and (12) learn and apply comprehension strategies as they reflect upon and think critically about what they read. The second section describes 8 classroom and campus factors that support effective reading instruction: careful use of instructional time; effective instructional practices; sound instructional materials; reading opportunities; a variety of assessment tools; a positive campus climate; professional development; and sound administrative practices. (Contains 73 references.) (RS)

Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made
from the original document.

ED 438 524

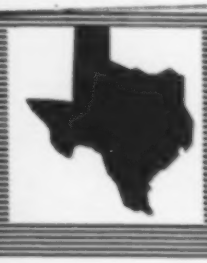
Beginning Reading Instruction

Components and Features of a Research-Based Reading Program

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Office of Educational Research and Improvement
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)
☑ This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it.
☐ Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality.
• Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official OERI position or policy.

PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE AND DISSEMINATE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY
L. Kemp
TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)
1

BEST COPY AVAILABLE



Texas Reading Initiative

CS 013 889

Beginning Reading Instruction

Components and Features of a Research-Based Reading Program

1996

Texas Reading Initiative

Beginning Reading Instruction

This Texas Education Agency publication is not copyrighted; any or all sections may be duplicated.

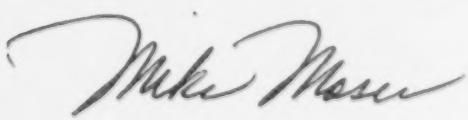
Foreword

In January 1996, Governor George W. Bush announced his reading initiative for the state of Texas. The Governor's goal is for all students to read on grade level by the end of Grade 3 and continue to read on grade level throughout their schooling. Reading is central to a child's experiences in school. How well children learn to read sets the foundation for future success. The Texas Education Agency, in collaboration with the Governor's office, is in the process of assisting school districts and teachers with the information and tools needed to ensure that all Texas boys and girls are successful readers.

We recognize that our schools are faced with a variety of challenges when it comes to teaching reading. Although there are many children who come to school ready to read, there is an ever growing population of children coming to our schools who have barely even seen a book, much less had the thousands of hours of lap reading, vocabulary building, and positive experiences with letters and sounds that are so essential to learning to read.

The scientific research of the past decade illuminates the way children learn to read and how we can enhance that process. Texas must provide a balanced and comprehensive reading program in our schools for every child - each and every child. The purpose of this document is to provide teachers and administrators with useful information to consider when evaluating reading programs or when structuring the reading program on their campus. Local control is a fundamental tenet of our educational system in Texas. This document is not meant to prescribe any particular methodology or curriculum; rather, it is meant as a guide.

It is incumbent upon us as educators to be open to what works best for our children regardless of time, methodology or other factors. Many schools have in place successful reading and writing programs that embrace the features outlined in this document and I applaud those schools. I ask you to examine your efforts and make any necessary changes to meet the challenge of having all children readers.



Mike Moses
Commissioner of Education

Reading is central to learning - in school, in the workplace, and in everyday life. For many children, learning to read and write during early school experiences is a pleasurable and even a thrilling experience, for themselves, for their parents, and for their teachers. But for children who do not make good progress in these early grades, learning to read is difficult and is associated with both present and future failure. Children who do not learn to read well in the first and second grades are likely to struggle with reading throughout their lives.

Nationwide, estimates of how many children in American schools that do not read well vary. In Texas the information is clear. The 1996 Texas Assessment of Academic Skills (TAAS) results reveal that at least 20 percent of Texas students do not read well enough to be described as proficient readers.

Governor Bush has described these children as an at-risk population in the making. His challenge to the schools of Texas is clear. All third grade children must read at grade level or better, and maintain grade level or better achievement in reading until they finish school.

Can this challenge be met? Fortunately, during the past decade compelling research reveals a clearer and deeper understanding of the abilities that lead to success with reading and writing, and about how children learn to read. This knowledge is useful to parents, teachers, and ultimately to the children. This knowledge has direct implications for preschool, kindergarten and the primary grades, programs of reading instruction, and most particularly for those children who have trouble learning to read.

What are the components of a research-based beginning reading program? This document presents descriptions of these components. Some will be familiar while others may be new. It is important to realize that the presence of only a few components in a program will not assure that every child will become a reader and writer. Rather, it is the orchestration of these components by teachers, administrators, and curriculum developers that will enable us to meet the Governor's challenge.

The following document is meant to guide administrators and teachers as they strive to meet the Governor's challenge. The first section describes twelve essential components of a beginning reading program. The second section describes classroom and campus factors that support effective reading instruction.

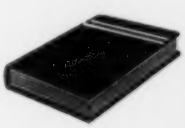
The twelve components are arranged in an order that could imply a sequence of instruction. However, these components should not be considered as rigid, sequential categories; rather, they are interrelated. Teachers work with their students on several components at a time, and children are helped to see the importance of these relationships. For example, when teachers read library books aloud in their classrooms, students make connections between reading and writing, expand their own spoken and written vocabularies, and observe proficient and fluent reading.

Children develop as readers throughout the early years of schooling. Because children bring such a variety of knowledge and experience to their classrooms, grade level differentiations or expectations are not given with each component. Research indicates that good readers learn these elements of reading, perhaps at home, perhaps on their own, or as a consequence of instruction. A teacher's task is to find out what students do understand, what they need to learn, and what needs to be provided in the classroom. Research also shows that for children whose first language is not English, instruction in the first language may be needed as a foundation for learning to read and write in English.

This document is based on a number of research reports and studies. Those who wish to examine this research base more fully may refer to *Beginning Reading Instruction: A Review of Research* which will be available from the Texas Education Agency through the Publications Office in late summer, 1997. In addition, a shorter bibliography of resources begins on page 16.

I want to thank Jean Osborn from the Center for the Study of Reading at the University of Illinois, Sharon O'Neal, Cathy Davis and Lanny van Allen from the Texas Education Agency, and Nancy Roser from The University of Texas at Austin. In addition, I gratefully acknowledge the advice of representatives from the Education Service Centers. Finally, special thanks goes to Christine Joosten who cheerfully worked to produce this document.

Robin Gilchrist
Assistant Commissioner
Texas Education Agency



Twelve Essential Components of Research-based Programs for Beginning Reading Instruction

Research-based programs for beginning reading instruction in kindergarten, first grade, and second grade provide balanced, well-organized instructional plans and practice opportunities that permit all children to make sense of reading. Some children begin school with a well developed understanding of many aspects of reading and become accomplished readers with minimal instruction. Other children need a great deal of careful and meaningful instruction to become accomplished readers. As children learn to read, they learn how spoken and written language relate to each other. For this to happen, the components of the reading program, including the instructional materials selected for classroom use, must relate to one another and be orchestrated into sequences of instruction that engage all children and meet their needs. The following are twelve of the essential components of research-based programs.

1. Children have opportunities to expand their use and appreciation of oral language

Children's comprehension of written language depends in large part upon their effective use and understanding of oral language. Language experiences are a central component of good reading instruction. Children learn a great deal about the world, about themselves, and about each other from spoken language. Kindergarten and first-grade language instruction that focuses on listening, speaking, and understanding includes the following:

- Discussions that focus on a variety of topics, including problem solving
- Activities that help children understand the world, in and out of the classroom
- Songs, chants, and poems that are fun to sing and say
- Concept development and vocabulary-building lessons
- Games and other activities that involve talking, listening and, in particular, following directions

2. Children have opportunities to expand their use and appreciation of printed language

Children's appreciation and understanding of the purposes and functions of written language are essential to their motivation for learning to read. Children must

become aware that printed language is all around them on signs, billboards, and labels, and in books, magazines, and newspapers and that print serves many different purposes. Reading and writing instruction that focuses on the use and appreciation of written language includes the following:

- Activities that help children to understand that print represents spoken language
- Activities that highlight the meanings, uses, and production of print found in classroom signs, labels, notes, posters, calendars, and directions
- Activities that teach print conventions, such as directionality
- Activities in which children practice how to handle a book–how to turn pages, how to find the tops and bottoms of pages, and how to tell the front and back covers
- Lessons in word awareness that help children become conscious of individual words, for example, their boundaries, their appearance and their length
- Activities in which children practice with predictable and patterned language stories

3. Children have opportunities to hear good stories and informational books read aloud daily

Listening to and talking about books on a regular basis provides children with demonstrations of the benefits and pleasures of reading. Story reading introduces children to new words, new sentences, new places, and new ideas. They also hear the kinds of vocabulary, sentences, and text structures they will find in their school books and be expected to read and understand. Reading aloud to children every day, and talking about books and stories, supports and extends oral language development and helps students connect oral to written language.

4. Children have opportunities to understand and manipulate the building blocks of spoken language

Children's ability to think about individual words as a sequence of sounds (phonemes) is important to their learning how to read an alphabetic language. Toward that understanding, children learn that sentences are made up of groups of separate words, and that words are made up of separate sounds.

Indeed, research has shown conclusively that children's phonemic awareness, their understanding that spoken words can be divided into separate sounds, is one of the best predictors of their success in learning to read. Instruction that promotes children's understanding and use of the building blocks of spoken language includes the following:

- Language games that teach children to identify rhyming words and to create rhymes on their own
- Activities that help children understand that spoken sentences are made up of groups of separate words, that words are made up of syllables, and that words can be broken down into separate sounds
- Auditory activities in which children manipulate the sounds of words, separate or segment the sounds of words, blend sounds, delete sounds, or substitute new sounds for those deleted

5. Children have opportunities to learn about and manipulate the building blocks of written language

Children must also become expert users of the building blocks of written language. Knowledge of letters (graphonemes) leads to success with learning to read. This includes the use, purpose, and function of letters. Instruction that helps children learn about the essential building blocks of written language includes the following:

- Alphabetic knowledge activities in which children learn the names of letters and learn to identify them rapidly and accurately
- A variety of writing activities in which children learn to print the letters that they are learning to identify
- Writing activities in which children have the opportunity to experiment with and manipulate letters to make words and messages

6. Children have opportunities to learn the relationship between the sounds of spoken language and the letters of written language

Increasing children's awareness of the sounds of spoken language and their familiarity with the letters of written language prepares them to understand the

alphabetic principle -- that written words are composed of patterns of letters that represent the sounds of spoken words. Effective instruction provides children with explicit and systematic teaching of sound-letter relationships in a sequence that permits the children to assimilate and apply what they are learning. Instruction that helps children understand the alphabetic principle and learn the most common relationships between sounds and letters includes the following:

- Alphabetic awareness activities in which children learn that printed words are made up of patterns of letters
- Lessons in sound-letter relationships that are organized systematically and that provide as much practice and review as is needed
- Activities in which children combine and manipulate letters to change words and spelling patterns

7. Children have opportunities to learn decoding strategies

Efficient decoding strategies permit readers to quickly and automatically translate the letters or spelling patterns of written words into speech sounds so that they can identify words and gain rapid access to their meanings. Children must learn to identify words quickly and effortlessly, so that they can focus on the meaning of what they are reading.

Research indicates that good readers rely primarily on print rather than on pictures or context to help them identify familiar words, and also to figure out words they have not seen before. For this reason, it is important that children learn effective sounding-out strategies that will allow them to decode words they have never seen in print. Some strategies of decoding instruction focus primarily on the relationships between sounds and letters; others combine letter-sound practice with word families, with word parts (for example, onsets and rimes), and with blending activities. More advanced decoding strategies focus on structural analysis, the identification of root words, and prefixes and suffixes.

Instruction should introduce "irregular" words in a reasonable sequence and use these words in the program's reading materials. It is important to realize, however, that essentially all words must become "sight words" -- words children identify quickly, accurately, and effortlessly.

Effective decoding instruction is explicit and systematic and can include the following:

- Practice in decoding and identifying words that contain the letter-sound relationships children are learning to read and need for reading and writing
- Practice activities that involve word families and rhyming patterns
- Practice activities that involve blending together the components of sounded-out words
- "Word play" activities in which children change beginning, middle, or ending letters of related words, thus changing the words they decode and spell
- Introduction of phonetically "irregular" words in practice activities and stories

8. Children have opportunities to write and relate their writing to spelling and reading

As children learn to read and write words, they become aware of how these words are spelled. Increasing children's awareness of spelling patterns hastens their progress in both reading and writing. In the early grades, spelling instruction must be coordinated with the program of reading instruction. As children progress, well organized, systematic lessons in spelling will be beneficial. Activities for effective spelling instruction should include the following:

- Activities that are related to the words that children are reading and writing
- Proofreading activities
- An emphasis on pride in correct spelling
- Lessons that help children attend to spelling conventions in a systematic way
- Activities that surround children in words and make reading and writing purpose-filled

9. Children have opportunities to practice accurate and fluent reading in decodable stories

The words in decodable stories do emphasize the sound-letter relationships the children are learning. While many predictable and patterned books provide children with engaging language and print experiences, these books may not be based on the sound-letter relationships the children are learning.

Decodable stories provide children with the opportunity to practice what they are learning about letters and sounds. As children learn to read words, sentences, and stories fluently, accurately, and automatically, they no longer have to struggle to identify words and are free to pay closer attention to the meaning.

Research asserts that most children benefit from direct instruction in decoding, complemented by practice with simply written decodable stories. Further, for some children this sort of systematic approach in critical. Stories should "fit" the child's reading level. Beginning readers should be able to read easily 90 percent or more of the words in a story, and after practice should be able to do so quickly, accurately, and effortlessly.

10. Children have opportunities to read and comprehend a wide assortment of books and other texts

As children develop effective decoding strategies and become fluent readers, they must read books and other texts that are less controlled in their vocabulary and sentence structure. They learn to use word order (syntax) and context to interpret words and understand their meanings. Soon, they become enthusiastic, independent readers of all kinds of written material including books, magazines, newspapers, computer screens, and more! Providing children with a great many books, both narrative and informational, is of primary importance. Classroom and campus libraries must offer children a variety of reading materials, some that are easy to read and others that are more challenging and of increasing difficulty and complexity. Children need access to many books that travel home for reading with family members. Classrooms that ensure wide reading provide the following:

- Daily time for self-selected reading
- Access to books children want to read in their classrooms and school libraries
- Access to books that can be taken home to be read independently, or to family members

11. Children have opportunities to develop and comprehend new vocabulary through wide reading and direct vocabulary instruction

Written language places greater demands on children's vocabulary knowledge than does their everyday spoken language.

In fact, many of the new words children learn in a year are learned from concrete and meaningful experiences from being read to and as they read on their own.

It is obvious that the number of new words children learn from reading depends upon how much they read and that the amount children read varies enormously. Therefore, it is important that teachers read aloud to children and encourage them to do a great deal of voluntary and independent reading. In addition, during reading instruction, children should be encouraged to attend to the meanings of new words. Activities that promote the acquisition of vocabulary include the following:

- Wide reading of a variety of genres, both narrative and informational
- Instruction that provides explicit information both about the meanings of words and about how they are used in the stories the children are reading
- Activities that involve children in analyzing context to figure out the meaning of unfamiliar words in a reading passage
- Discussions of new words that occur during the course of the day, for example in books that have been read aloud by the teacher, in content area studies and in textbooks
- Activities that encourage children both to use words they are learning in their own writing, and to keep records of interesting and related words

12. Children have opportunities to learn and apply comprehension strategies as they reflect upon and think critically about what they read

Written language is not just speech written down. Instead, written language offers new vocabulary, new language patterns, new thoughts, and new ways of thinking. Comprehension depends on the ability to identify familiar works quickly and automatically, which includes fluent reading, as well as the ability to figure out new words. But this is not enough.

Comprehension also depends upon the understanding of word meanings, on the development of meaningful ideas from groups of words (phrases, clauses, and sentences) and the drawing of inferences. It also depends upon the demands of the text (its concepts, its density), and the knowledge the reader brings to the text. The discussion of good books with their friends and classmates is one avenue for making these connections.

Such discussions will help children to appreciate and reflect on new aspects of written language and on the wide, wonderful world of print. For children to receive the greatest benefit and enjoyment from their reading, they must receive comprehension strategy instruction that builds on their knowledge of the world and of language. Comprehension strategy instruction can include the following:

- Activities that help children learn to preview selections, anticipate content, and make connections between what they will read and what they already know
- Instruction that provides options when understanding breaks down (for example, rereading, asking for expert help, and looking up words)
- Guidance in helping children compare characters, events, and themes of different stories
- Activities that encourage discussion about what is being read and how ideas can be linked (for example, to draw conclusions and make predictions)
- Activities that help children extend their reading experiences through the reading of more difficult texts with the teacher

SUMMARY

As these components are translated into classroom experiences, children will have opportunities to talk, read, and write in the many ways they use language both inside and out of the classroom. Because the language arts (reading, writing, listening and speaking) are so interrelated, children must be given the opportunity to practice the strands of language arts in connected and purposeful ways.

Classroom experiences that offer children opportunities to write for real life reasons include having children write letters of invitation to parents and other community members to visit their classrooms, or writing letters of thanks to individuals and organizations that have contributed to their school. Children write to record newly acquired information, to reflect on what they are learning and to organize their ideas. They also work in groups to write reports on special topics.

Classroom experiences that offer children opportunities to read, listen and speak for real life purposes include the reading of "everyday" notes, news, messages, lists, labels, and the reading of compositions and reports written in the classroom. In such classrooms, reading, writing, listening, and speaking become important and meaningful to every child.

Eight Features of Classrooms and Campuses that Support Effective Beginning Reading Instruction

Many factors contribute to the overall success of a beginning reading program. These factors require a total school effort and cannot be accomplished without the support of the school administrators. The following is a list of those classroom and campus features that support a successful reading program.

1. Careful Use of Instructional Time

- While language arts practice occurs throughout the entire school day, significant time must be protected for and dedicated to reading and language arts instruction. Many campuses dedicate a substantial amount of time each morning for reading and language arts instruction (*e.g.*, 90 minutes or more). Some children need additional assistance and are provided instruction that is based on their specific needs.

- Language and concept development activities are an important part of the classroom curriculum.

- Language arts instruction includes daily reading aloud and discussion of high-quality literature, both fiction and nonfiction.

- Systematic instruction in reading begins as early as kindergarten and continues throughout the primary grades. This careful, consistent instruction is based on thoughtful evaluation of data obtained from classroom observations, formal and informal assessments, and samples of student work.

2. Effective Instructional Practices

- Teachers organize flexible and purposeful groups that are based on children's instructional needs. Membership in these groups changes as the children progress or as they experience difficulty.

- Teachers provide instruction that involves both frequent interactions with children and constructive feedback.

- Children read at an appropriate level in their programs of instruction, and teachers adjust their instructional practices according to how well and how quickly the children progress.

- In first- and second-grade classrooms, children who are having difficulty learning to read are provided with additional reading instruction in a small group or tutoring setting. In addition, before-school or after-school sessions and summer school classes are provided for all children who need extra help. Such instruction is coordinated with the programs the children are engaged in during the regular school day and based on continual and thoughtful analysis of each child's progress and needs as a reader and writer.

3. Sound Instructional Materials

Research-based criteria are used to select the instructional materials that provide the structure for the classroom reading program. These criteria establish the need for systematic instruction and sufficient practice in a number of aspects of beginning reading. These aspects include the following:

phonemic awareness: Children learn how to divide spoken words into individual sounds and to blend spoken sounds into words.

alphabetic knowledge: Children learn to recognize, name, and write letters.

alphabetic principle: Children learn that sounds can be represented by letters, and to recognize the most useful sound-letter relationships.

decoding strategies: Children learn blending and other decoding strategies that permit them to sound out new words and identify them quickly.

spelling and writing: Children write using their knowledge of printed letters and the sounds they represent. Because knowledge of letter-sound patterns contributes to reading success, spelling instruction is coordinated with the program of reading instruction. Knowledge of and practice in correct spellings also contributes to more effective writing.

manageable, decodable text: Children read words, sentences, and stories that contain the sound-letter relationships they are learning, as well as some "sight" words. Because fluent reading is essential to comprehension, children should practice both oral and silent reading. Children should have easy access to an array of story books and other reading materials that they can read on their own and with others.

vocabulary acquisition: The meanings of unfamiliar words are taught and discussed. Students also acquire word meanings through wide reading.

comprehension and understanding: Students discuss the meanings of everything they are learning to read -- words, sentences, and stories -- with each other and with their teachers and their tutors. They learn comprehension strategies as they learn to read more complex books and other texts.

language activities: Children expand their speaking and listening skills, their background and vocabulary knowledge in formal and informal activities as they engage in storytime discussion, journal keeping, wide reading, and purposeful writing.

4. Reading Opportunities

- As children develop as readers, they eagerly read books they can comprehend, learn from, and enjoy.

- Students must have access to classroom and school libraries that contain a large and varied book collection that encourages the development of the following:

wide reading: As children become fluent readers, they read increasingly challenging literature, both fiction and nonfiction, of greater complexity and difficulty. They read daily with partners, in groups, and independently at school and at home.

classroom discussions: Teachers and students engage in meaningful discussions that focus on interpretations of and reflective thinking about what they (and others) are reading and writing. They learn to support their interpretations by relying on the text.

comprehension strategies: As they read various kinds of books and other materials, students learn and practice comprehension strategies, sometimes on their own and sometimes with direct help from their teachers.

5. A Variety of Assessment Tools

Teachers and administrators who regard assessment as informative, select and administer assessments according to the needs of individual students. They conduct ongoing evaluations of student progress to help them plan instruction. Parents, teachers, and administrators are kept abreast of every child's reading progress based on such assessment and evaluations. Children who reveal serious problems in reading often need further assessment. However, the following assessment and evaluations should be used with all children:

screening assessments: During kindergarten and first grade, every student is screened for phonemic awareness, alphabetic knowledge, and understanding of basic language concepts.

informal assessments: On a regular basis, children are informally assessed to determine if they are making adequate progress. These assessments can include measures of reading rate and accuracy and story retellings. These assessments are used as a basis for adjusting instruction to the needs of each child.

end-of-year assessments: Every student is assessed at the end of the school year to inform parents, teachers, and campus and district administrators about student progress. These assessments are used to make plans to meet the needs of children and of the campus in the following year.

6. A Positive Campus Climate

Administrators and staff create campuses that are welcoming to their students and their families and that contribute to students' successful progress as readers. Some aspects of positive campus climate include:

attractive environment: Buildings and classrooms are clean, neat, and inviting.

book rich environment: Lots of books are in evidence (and in use) in classroom libraries, and the school library.

student work: Children's written work is displayed in the halls and in the classrooms.

positive staff: The staff is friendly and respectful of every student and is committed to a program of continuous student development from one grade level to the next and to stimulating family involvement.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

curricular decisions: Effective practices are maintained and often improved; new ideas are discussed, evaluated, and integrated with existing practice.

student attitudes: Students are proud of their accomplishments and respectful of teachers and of other students.

7. Professional Development

- Teachers take part in frequent, relevant and continuous professional development that focuses on the implementation of good classroom reading instruction that meets the needs of all students.
- Teachers have time to work with and to consult each other, to visit each other's classrooms, and to make instructional decisions that improve the coordination of instruction from one grade level to the next.
- Teachers are given time to practice instructional strategies and are supported throughout the school year.
- Lead or master teachers are available to coach new and less experienced teachers.

8. Sound Administrative Practices

- Administrators work to determine that all of the resources of the campus, including staff time, are allocated to meet the goal of successful reading instruction for every student.
- Administrators either assure or designate responsibility for instructional leadership that includes monitoring students' progress in each classroom and providing help when students are not making sufficient progress.
- In the professional development process, administrators help teachers focus on the performance of their students.
- In their words and in their actions, administrators consistently support the components of effective reading instruction.

References

Adams, M. J. (1990). *Beginning to read: Thinking and learning about print.* Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.

Anderson, R. C., Hiebert, E. H., Scott, J. A., & Wilkinson, I. A. G. (1985). *Becoming a nation of readers: The report of the Commission on Reading.* Champaign, IL: Center for the Study of Reading. Washington, DC: National Institute of Education.

Baker, S. K., Kameenui, E. J., Simmons, D. C., Stahl, S. (1994). Beginning reading: Educational tools for diverse learners. *School Psychology Review, 23*, pp.372-391.

Bear, D. R., Invernizzi, M., Templeton, S., & Johnston, F. (1996). *Words their way: Word study for phonics, vocabulary, and spelling.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Beck, I. L., & Juel C. (I992). The role of decoding in learning to read. In S. J. Samuels & A. E. Farstrup (Eds.), *What research has to say about reading instruction* (2nd ed., pp. 101-123). Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Beck, I. L., & McKeown, M. G. (1991). Conditions of vocabulary acquisition. In R. Barr, M. L. Kamil, P. Mosenthal, & P. D. Pearson (Eds.), *Handbook of reading research* (Vol. 2, pp. 789-814). New York: Longman.

Biemiller, A. (1994). Some observations on beginning reading instruction. *Educational Psychologist, 29*, pp. 203-209.

Blachman, B. A. (I984). Relationship of rapid naming ability and language analysis skills to kindergarten and first-grade reading achievement. *Journal of Educational Psychology,76*, pp. 610-622.

Blachman, B. A. (1991). Getting ready to read: Learning how print maps to speech. In J. Kavanagh (Ed.), *The language continuum: From infancy to literacy* (pp. 1-22). Washington, DC: U.S. Dept. of Health and Human Services.

Brophy, J. and Good, T. (1986). Teacher behavior and student achievement *Handbook on Research on Teaching* (3rd ed). M. Wittrock (Ed.). New York: Macmillan.

EST COPY AVAILABLE

Calfee, R. C., & Moran, C. (1993). Comprehending orthography, social construction of letter-sound in monolingual and bilingual programs. *Reading and Writing: An Interdisciplinary Journal ,5*, pp. 205-225.

Calfee, R. C. A. (1995). Behind-the-scenes look at reading acquisition. *Issues in Education, 1*, pp. 77-82.

California Reading Task Force. (1995). *Every child a reader.* Sacramento, CA: Department of Education.

Chall, J. S. (1967). *Learning to read: The great debate.* New York: McGraw-Hill.

Clay, M. M. (l972). *Reading: The patterning of complex behavior.* Auckland, New Zealand: Heinemann.

Clay, M. M. (1979). *The early detection of reading difficulties* (3rd ed.). Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Clay, M. M. (1991). *Becoming literate: The construction of inner control.* Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Cummins, J. (1981). *The role of primary language development in promoting educational success for language of minority students.* Sacramento, CA: Department of Education.

Cunningham, P. (1991). *Phonics they use: Words for reading and writing.* New York: Harper Collins.

Delpit, L. D. (l995). *Other people's children.* New York: New Press.

Downing, J. (1979). *Reading and reasoning.* New York: Springer-Verlag.

Durkin, D. (1966). *Children who read early: Two longitudinal studies.* New York: Teachers College Press.

Ehri, L. C. (1986). Sources of difficulty in learning to spell and read words. In M.L. Wolraich & D. Routh (Eds.), *Advances in developmental and behavioral pediatrics* (Vol. 7, pp. 121-195). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

Ehri, L. C. (1987). Learning to read and spell words. *Journal of Reading Behavior, 19*, pp. 5-31.

Ehri, L. C. (1991). Development of the ability to read words. In R. Barr, M.L. Karmil, P.B. Mosenthal, & P.D. Pearson (Eds.), *Handbook of Reading Research* (Vol. 2, pp. 383-417). New York: Longman.

Ehri, L. C., & Wilce, L.S. (1985). Movement into reading: Is the first stage of printed word learning visual or phonetic? *Reading Research Quarterly, 20*, 163 -179.

Foorman, B. R. (in press). The case for early reading intervention. *Foundations of reading acquisition.* Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Fox, B., & Routh, D. K. (1975). Analyzing spoken language into words, syllables, and phonemes: A developmental study. *Journal of Psycholinguistic Research, 4*, pp. 331-412.

Goldfield, B. A., & Snow, C. A. (1984). Reading books with children: The mechanics of parental influences on children's reading achievement. In J. Flood (Ed.), *Understanding reading comprehension.*. Newark, DE: International Reading Association (pp. 204-215).

Graves, D. (I994). *A fresh look at writing.* Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Hodgkinson, H. L. (1992). *A demographic look at tomorrow* (Report No. ISBN-0-937846-57-0). Washington, DC: Institute for Educational Leadership (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 359 087).

Hodgkinson, H. L. (1993). American education: The good, the bad, and the task. *Phi Delta Kappan 74*, pp. 619-623.

Johnston, F., Juel, C., & Invemizzi, M. (1995). *Guidelines for volunteer tutors of emergent and early readers.* Charlottesville, VA: University of Virginia Bookstore.

Juel, C. (1994). *Learning to read and write in one elementary school.* New York: Springer-Verlag.

Kameenui, E. J., & Carnine, D. W. (Eds.). (in press). *Effective teaching strategies that accommodate diverse learners.* Columbus, OH: Merrill Education, Prentice Hall.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Kirk, C. (1979). Patterns of word segmentation in preschool children. *Child Study Journal, 9*, pp. 37-49.

Liberman, I. Y., Shankweiler, D., & Liberman, A. M. (1991). The alphabetic principle and learning to read. In *Phonology and reading disability: Solving the reading puzzle.* Washington, DC: International Academy for Research in Learning Disabilities, Monograph Series, U.S. Dept. of Health and Human Services, Public Health Service; National Institutes of Health.

Lindamood, C., Bell, N., & Lindamood, P. (1992). Issues in phonological awareness assessment. *Annals of Dyslexia ,42*, pp. 242-259.

Lindamood C., & Lindamood, P. (1975). *The A.D.D. program: auditory discrimination in depth* (2nd ed.). Columbus, OH: SRA Division, Macmillan/McGraw-Hill.

Lundberg, I., Frost, J., & Peterson, O. P. (1988). Effects of an extensive program for stimulating phonological awareness in preschool children. *Reading Research Quarterly, 23*, pp. 264-284.

Lyon, G. R. (1994). Research in learning disabilities at the NICHD. Bethesda, MD: NICHD Technical Document/Human Learning and Behavior Branch.

Mason, J. M. (1980). When do children begin to read: An exploration of four-year-old children's letter and word reading competencies. *Reading Research Quarterly 15*, pp. 203-227.

McKeown, M. G. (1985). The acquisition of word meaning from context by children of high and low ability. *Reading Research Quarterly ,20*, pp. 482-496.

Meltzer, N. S., & Herse, R. (1969). The boundaries of written words as seen by first graders. *Journal of Reading Behavior, 1*, pp. 3 -14.

Miller, C., & Winick, D. M. (1996, November). Public school accountability: The Texas story. *Texas Monthly*, pp. 112-118.

Moats, L. C. (1995).Spelling: Development, disabilities, and instruction. Timonium, MD York Press.

Nagy, W. E. (1988). *Teaching vocabulary to Improve reading comprehension.* Urbana, IL: ERIC Clearinghouse on Reading and Communication Skills. Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English.

Nagy, W. E., & Anderson, R. C. (1984). How many words are there in printed school English? *Reading Research Quarterly, 19,* pp. 304-330.

Nagy, W. E., Anderson, R. C., & Herman, P. A. (1987). Learning word meanings from context during normal reading. *American Educational Research Journal , 24,* pp. 237-270.

Perfetti, C. A. (1985). *Reading ability.* New York: Oxford University Press.

Perfetti, C. A., & Lesgold, A. M. (1979). Coding and comprehension in skilled reading and implications for reading instruction. In L. B. Resnick & P. A. Weaver (Eds.), *Theory and practice of early reading* (Vol. 1, pp. 57-84). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Pearson, D. (1993). Focus on research: Teaching and learning reading: A research perspective. *Language Arts, 70,* pp. 502-511.

Pearson, D. (in press). *Reclaiming the center.* To appear in a volume by M. Graves and B. Taylor. New York: Teachers in College Press.

Pressley, M., & Rankin, J. (1994). More about whole language methods of reading instruction for students at risk for early reading failure. *Learning Disabilities Research and Practice, 9,* pp. 157-168.

Pressley, M., & Woloshyn, V. (Eds.) (1995). *Cognitive strategy instruction that <u>really</u> improves children's academic performance* (2nd ed.). Cambridge, MA: Brookline Books.

Reid, J. F. (1966). Learning to think about reading. *Educational Research, 9,* pp. 56-62.

Rozin, P., Bressman, B., & Taft, M. (1974). Do children understand the basic relationship between speech and writing? The mow-motorcycle test. *Journal of Reading Behavior, 6,* pp. 327-334.

Share, D. L., & Stanovich, K. E. (1995). Cognitive processes in early reading development: Accommodating individual differences into a mode of acquisition. *Issues in Education: Contributions from Educational Psychology , 1,* pp. 1-57.

Shefelbine, J. (1995). Learning and using phonics in beginning reading. *Thrust for Educational Leadership, 25*, pp. 8-9.

Speer, 0. B., & Lamb, G. S. (1976). First-grade reading ability and fluency in naming verbal symbols. *The Reading Teacher, 26*, pp. 572-576.

Stahl, S. A. (1992). Saying the "p" word: Nine guidelines for exemplary phonics instruction. *The Reading Teacher ,43*, pp. 618-625.

Stanovich. K. E. (1980). Toward an interactive-compensatory model of individual differences in the development of reading fluency. *Reading Research Quarterly, 16* , pp. 32-71.

Stanovich, K . E. (1986). Matthew effects in reading: Some consequences of individual differences in the acquisition of literacy. *Reading Research Quarterly, 21*, pp. 360-407.

Stanovich, K. E., Cunningham, A. E., & Cramer, B. B. (1984). Assessing phonological awareness in kindergarten children: Issues of task comparability. *Journal of Experimental Child Psychology , 38*, pp. 175-190.

Sulzby, E. (1983). A commentary on Ehri's critique of five studies related to letter-name knowledge and learning to read: Broadening the question." In L. M. Gentile, M. L. Kamil, & J. S. Blanchard (Eds.), *Reading research revisited.* Columbus, OH: Charles E. Merrill.

Tummer, W. E., Herriman, M. L., & Nesdale, A. R. (1988). Metalinguistic abilities and beginning reading. *Reading Research Quarterly , 23*, pp. 134-158.

Vellutino, F. R. (1991). Introduction to three studies on reading acquisition: Convergent findings on theoretical foundations of code-oriented versus whole-language approaches to reading instruction. *Journal of Educational Psychology ,83*, pp. 437-443.

Williams, J. P. (1991). The meaning of a phonics base for reading instruction. In *All language and the creation of literacy* (pp. 9-19). Baltimore, MD: Orton Dyslexia Society.

Yopp, H. K. (1988). The validity and reliability of phonemic awareness tests. *Reading Research Quarterly , 23*, pp. 159- 177.

Compliance Statement

TITLE VI, CIVIL RIGHTS ACT OF 1964; THE MODIFIED COURT ORDER, CIVIL ACTION 5281, FEDERAL DISTRICT COURT, EASTERN DISTRICT OF TEXAS, TYLER DIVISION

Reviews of local education agencies pertaining to compliance with Title VI Civil Rights Act of 1964 and with specific requirement of the Modified Court Order, Civil Action No. 5281, Federal District Court, Eastern District of Texas, Tyler Division are conducted periodically by staff representatives of the Texas Education Agency. These reviews cover at least the following policies and practices:

(1) acceptance policies on student transfers from other school districts;
(2) operation of school bus routes or runs on a nonsegregated basis;
(3) nondiscrimination in extracurricular activities and the use of school facilities;
(4) nondiscriminatory practices in the hiring, assigning, promoting, paying, demoting, reassigning, or dismissing of faculty and staff members who work with children;
(5) enrollment and assignment of students without discrimination on the basis of race, color, or national origin;
(6) nondiscriminatory practices relating to the use of a student's first language; and
(7) evidence of published procedures for hearing complaints and grievances.

In additional to conducting reviews, the Texas Education Agency staff representatives check complaints of discrimination made by citizen or citizens residing in a school district where alleged discriminatory practices have occurred or are occurring.

Where a violation of the Court Order in Civil Action No. 5281 that cannot be cleared through negotiation, the sanctions required by the Court Order are applied.

If there is a direct violation of the Court Order in Civil Action No. 5281 that cannot be cleared through negotiation, the sanctions required by the Court Order are applied.

TITLE VII, CIVIL RIGHTS ACT OF 1964 AS AMENDED BY THE EQUAL; EMPLOYMENT OPPORTUNITY ACT OF 1972; EXECUTIVE ORDERS 11246 AND 11375; EQUAL PAY ACT OF 1964L TITLE IX, EDUCATION ADMENMENTS; REHABILITATION ACT OF 1973 AS AMENDED; 1974 ADMENMENTS TO THE WAGE-HOUR LAW EXPANDING THE AGE DISCRIMINATION IN EMPLOYMENT ACT OF 1967; VIETNAM ERA VETERANS READJUSTMENT ACT OF 1972 AS AMENDED; IMMIGRATION REFORM AND CONTROL ACT OF 1986; AMERICANS WITH DISABILITIES ACT OF 1990; AND THE CIVIL RIGHTS ACT OF 1991.

The Texas Education Agency shall comply fully with the nondiscrimination provisions of all federal and state laws, rules, and regulations by assuring that no person shall be excluded from consideration for recruitment, selection, appointment, training, promotion, retention, or any other personnel action, or be denied any benefits or participation in any educational programs or activities which it operates on the grounds of race, religion, color, national origin, sex, disability, age, or veteran status (except where age, sex or disability constitutes a bona fide occupational qualification necessary to proper and efficient administration). The Texas Education Agency is an Equal Employment Opportunity/Affirmative Action employer.

For additional copies please write to:
Texas Education Agency
Publications Division
1701 North Congress Avenue
Austin, TX 78701-1494

Refer to Publication Number CU7 105 01

Cost is $1.50 per book